

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

OCTOBER, 1873.

COMMENTS AND CRITICISMS.

COULD Shakespeare and Milton return to the world and read the commentaries that have been written upon their poems, they would doubtless experience a variety of emotions. What some of these feelings would be, we need not question. They would be amazed at the repeated exhibitions of apparent dullness on the part of their commentators in failing to comprehend what was so plain to themselves, and at the marvellous meanings consequently attached to their words, not one of which they themselves had had the remotest idea of. They would pity the prejudice and perversity that insisted on making their words mean what they themselves never dreamed of. They might also be amused at the complacency with which the critic in his ignorance undertook to explain a seemingly mysterious passage, or to point out errors that did not exist. But these writers can never return, and the worthlessness of the labors of their commentators can never be truly known.

These thoughts were suggested on perusing, in the August number of the *Galaxy*, Richard Grant White's comments upon my article, entitled "Had Rather," which appeared in the February number of this journal. As he found it necessary, in what he said in respect to that article,

to employ nearly two words to my one—though, says Mr. White, “there is very little of it that concerns me, and that little is easily disposed of”—I may, perhaps, be allowed to offer a few additional remarks by way of correcting some of the errors into which he has fallen.

In speaking of my article, he says, “The only wrong done me by the author of the article in question is that he speaks of my little paragraph as ‘the latest instance of this kind of criticism,’ meaning the auxiliary and the parsing kind.”

On this I have three remarks to make. The first is, that I wish I could say of Mr. White that the only wrong he has done me in his essay is the perversion of my meaning in merely this one instance. I am sorry to say, however, that he has misconstrued or perverted my words in more cases than I shall notice or care to notice.

The second is, that if Mr. White had read my words carefully he would have seen that my meaning was not what he says it is. I had said that “it has become popular of late years to condemn this form of speech, and suggest another instead.” After instancing an example of this, I referred to his criticism as the latest specimen of the kind I had noticed. The “kind” to which I referred was the popular condemnatory mode of dealing with this expression in which he had inconsiderately indulged. His comment—“the auxiliary and the parsing kind”—to say nothing of its ungrammaticalness, is purely gratuitous—an apparent attempt to raise a dust to blind the eyes of others, so that he might beat a retreat unnoticed and by a flank movement come around and appear on common ground with his disinterested readers.

The third remark is, that Mr. White seems altogether too sensitive about being taken for a grammatical critic. He is very studious to have it understood that grammar is not his province. Of parsing he knows nothing, never did know anything. In English grammar he has no faith: English, to him, is a “grammarless tongue.” The “grammatical” character of *had rather* or any other expression “is nothing at all to his purpose.” “Let the dead in grammar bury their dead. It is none of my funeral!” he exclaims in language of doubtful propriety. He cares nothing about whether language should “parse” or not. The question as to the

correctness of the form *had rather go*, he says, "is not a grammatical one." What then? Why, it is a "linguistic" question, and Mr. White is a "linguistic" critic! All that he wants is that people should use language "logically," that their "phraseology" should be "self-consistent." It is news indeed that the question respecting the form under consideration is not a grammatical one, when the sole objection raised against it is, really and in plain English, that it is "ungrammatical." Perhaps such questions as whether *you was* is correct, or whether "*such* is ever correctly used as an adverb," and the like, are not "grammatical" questions! I had supposed they were. But as Mr. White treats of them under the head of "Linguistic Notes," I must, of course, be in error. I had imagined that linguistics treated of something different from questions of "the parsing kind." But, lest I should again incur the charge of being "magisterial and severe" in the tone of my remarks, I defer to Mr. White's superior knowledge, and suppose he must be a writer on linguistics, though I am unable as yet to see it.

Again, Mr. White quotes my words, "Consistently with grammatical principles, as well as with long-established, unquestioned English usage, and that, too, of the best and most careful writers in the language, we hesitate not," etc. Commenting on this, he says that here is to be found "the assertion that this usage is 'unquestioned'—an assertion which seems to have been too thoughtlessly made. I deny it. . . . Manifestly, the fact is directly to the contrary of this writer's too inconsiderate, and unjustified assertion. The phraseology *is* questioned." I confess, I am amazed at such "inconsiderate" statements on the part of my commentator. I spoke of *had rather go* as a form of speech consistent "with long-established, *unquestioned English usage*." This, Mr. White says, only four lines further on, "is a mere repetition in substance, and even in words," of what he himself set forth! And yet the statement of the writer in the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is "too inconsiderate!" It was "too thoughtlessly made!" I do not wish to have even the appearance of being "magisterial and severe," but I must say that Mr. White here seems to me to be want-

ing somewhat in "self-consistent phraseology." Nor is this all: my logical commentator virtually charges me with nonsense. What does he mean by the ambiguous assertion "The phraseology is questioned?" Certainly not that its *use* is questioned, or that its being an *English* use of words—which was the point I made—is questioned. "It has the sanction," says Mr. White himself, "of usage for centuries, not only by the English-speaking people generally, but by their greatest and most careful writers." Does he mean that the *propriety* of the combination is questioned? This is just what my entire article implies. I assumed it, and aimed to show that those who questioned its propriety are in error. And yet is not this what Mr. White really means? If so,—and I can attach no other meaning to his words,—then not only does he mean to say that I assert that neither he nor any one else has ever questioned what I aim to show he errs in questioning, but he fails to say what he means. It really strikes me that the assertion that "the phraseology is questioned," is a little "too inconsiderate;" it "seems to have been too thoughtlessly made." It moreover strikes me that it would be as well for Mr. White, as for his pupils, to follow the rule which he lays down for their use; namely, "to select the words *that will convey your meaning*," and arrange them in proper order. Had he done so in this case, he would of course have said, "*The propriety of this phraseology is questioned.*" But by so doing he would have punctured his little balloon, and lost his gas. We trust, however, as Mr. White is an advocate not only of "logical and self-consistent phraseology," but of language suitably chosen to express one's real meaning, he will in future show his appreciation of these characteristics of a good writer by his consistent practice as well as by his wholesome precepts.

Again, Mr. White quotes my words, "Commonly, futurity is not expressed in English by a single word." By "commonly" I meant "usually," "customarily." In making this exception to the universality of the application of the remainder of the remark, I had in view more especially the imperative form, which, though generally designated a present, is really a future; *i. e.*, if denoting an action or state belonging to future time is the condition *essentia* o a verb's

being in the future tense; as, "*Strike*, but *hear*;" "*Go* and *see*;" "*Sing* us a song." Occasionally, no doubt, the present indicative is used for representing futurity rather than present time; as when the poet makes Catiline say "I go, but I *return*." So also, "*Come* ye not at my bidding?" Now, Mr. White, strangely misunderstanding my remark, flies in the face of it, as though he was sorely pressed for something to say, and exclaims, "On the contrary, it is, and has for centuries been *very commonly* [very usually! very customarily!!] expressed by a single word; *e. g.*, 'I go a fishing;' 'I sail for England to-morrow;' 'He marries her next week.'" With all due deference to Mr. White's perception of futurities, I deny that the verb alone in either of the last two of these examples denotes futurity. The idea of future time is embodied in other words. Mr. White ought not to adduce such questionable examples in proof of his statements if suitable ones are so "very common" as he would have it appear.

He controverts my position that the so-called future tense of English verbs "is simply a combination of two present tense forms." He says, this "assertion is untrue;" the so-called future tense of English verbs "consists of the combination of a present with an *infinitive* form." Wonderful! But what tense of the infinitive? I beg pardon! Mr. White is not a grammarian. And, though he talks about tenses and modes, his English is a grammarless, and of course tenseless, tongue! Enough if it is "logical" and "self-consistent!"

As an illustration of the fact that *have* does not always denote possession, I adduced the sentence "I had to inquire my way." In a sentence like this I claimed that *had* denotes compulsion or obligation. This is obvious enough from the fact that the sentence means "I was compelled or obliged to inquire my way." Here, *was compelled* and *was obliged* are perfect synonyms and substitutes of *had*. Yet Mr. White says, "If it [*i. e.*, *have*] ever implies or seems to express any other meaning [than possession], that is only in virtue of the association of ideas, or by [a] figure of speech." And he adds, "In the sentence 'I have to go home,' obligation is expressed; but it is expressed by the sentence as a whole;

in this and in all other cases of a like construction, *have* expresses simply present possession." I don't see this. Does Mr. White, in the equivalent sentence "I must go home," see that *must*, too, "expresses simply present possession?" I don't. If he thinks that the obligation here as well as in the other instance "is expressed by the sentence as a whole," I beg leave, most respectfully, to differ with him. His representing that compulsion, obligation, or necessity is possession does not make it so; some better proof of this is needed than his simple dictum. He might as well say that bondage, or poverty, or destitution is possession.

But I find I am spending too much time over these "Linguistic Notes." I might point out other errors into which their author has fallen. But I forbear. I desire, in conclusion, merely to call the reader's attention to an example of Mr. White's expertness at what I infer to be his "linguistics." I had said that he erred in representing that *had* constantly and universally "expresses perfected, past possession." In evidence of this I adduced, as one example, the sentence "I have had this cold for more than a week," and thought I made it clear that, if his position were true, the prefixing of *have* to *had* could not make the words express a possession still continuing. The following is his lucid and masterly reply: "In the sentence 'I have had this cold for more than a week,' . . . *had*, in my judgment, can express only past possession. The whole sentence expresses both past and present possession, but *had* only that which is past. 'I had this cold for more than a week' expresses the possession of the cold for more than a week at some time past. 'I have this cold' expresses possession of the cold at the present time, and we cannot add 'for more than a week,' for that takes in past time. And if we wish to express past possession also, we must combine *had* with *have*." Now, for one who makes any pretensions whatever to being a grammatical critic to write like this, is simply ridiculous. The reasoning, if such it can be called, evinces palpable ignorance of the true character of the words under consideration.

In the first place, Mr. White mistakes the nature of a possession, considered with reference to its duration. In say-

ing "*Had*, in my judgment, can express *only* past possession," he repeats in different words the erroneous idea, previously advanced, that *had* constantly and universally "expresses *perfected* and past possession." To show the falsity of this position, take some word that is of this character, some word whose meaning obviously belongs only to the past—*buried*, for example. This word, like *begun*, *commenced*, *broken*, *shaken*, *eaten*, *asked*, *made*, *drawn*, and hundreds of others, expresses not only a past but perfect act. Now, though the prefixing of *have*, as in the sentence "I have buried my father this week," may cause the verb—*have buried*—to denote an act performed in a period of time extending up to the present moment or the moment when the words are supposed to be uttered, yet neither does *have buried* nor even the entire sentence in which it stands "express both past and present" action. Still, Mr. White says, "*I have this cold* expresses possession of the cold at the present time. If we wish to express past possession also, we must combine *have* with *had*." By parity of reasoning, I might say "I have a father" expresses something now mine. If we wish to express something past also, *i. e.*, something both past and present, we must combine *have* with some word that expresses a perfected, past act, as *buried*—"I have buried my father." But the argument doesn't hold good. *Have buried* does not express an act, as *have had* in the given sentence does a possession, embracing both past and present time. Nor is *had* alone in this respect: *lived*, *loved*, *owed*, *hoped*, *hesitated*, *worn*, *suffered*, *endured*, *honored*, *retained*, are samples of hundreds of words of the same nature that will occur to any one on reading a few pages in the first book he may take up. So much for Mr. White's insisting that *had* can express only past possession. We trust that, by this time, he sees what we mean, and wherein his judgment needs correcting.

In the second place, he mistakes the character of *have* and *had* in the combination under consideration, in which, by resolving the sentence into "I had this cold," etc., and "I have this cold," he would make it appear that *had* is the imperfect or preterite, and *have* a verb denoting possession. But neither of these is the case. To make this clear, take,

instead, the sentence "I have worn this coat all the week." Now, according to Mr. White's "linguistics," "I *worn* this coat all the week" expresses, in unexceptionable English, the wearing of the coat for a week at some time past! But any school-boy who believes in English grammar knows that *worn* here, or *had* in the other case, is what is called the past "participle" form, and as such is incapable of expressing with a noun or a pronoun an "affirmation." In a word, Mr. White errs in taking the *had* of the combination *have had* and using it in framing the sentence "I had this cold," etc. He might as well say, "I gone;" "I been there;" "I written it;" "I spoken it;" "I known him;" "I seen him;" "I done it."

Again, according to Mr. White, the *have* of the combination *have worn* is in every respect the same as *have* in the sentence "I have this coat," and consequently expresses not merely possession but present possession. Now, for one, I confess I fail to perceive, in the expression "I have worn," any more of the idea of present possession than in the words "I am wearing." Indeed, if this idea predominates in either case, it seems to me it is in the latter—"I am wearing." But really it exists in neither, any more than what necessarily inheres in the meaning of the word *wear*. In the two expressions "I wore" and "I have worn," I fail to see any difference whatever in meaning except in the matter of the time implied. Even in the sentences "Have you worn the coat?"—(answer) "I have," in the latter of which emphasis is laid on *have*, the idea of possession is no more apparent than in the word *did* in the sentences "Did you wear the coat?"—(answer) "I did." Compare also the forms "I lost" and "I have lost;" "I was" and "I have been;" "I gave" and "I have given;" "I ran" and "I have run." What difference in the meaning except as respects the time implied? I doubt whether Mr. White or any one else sees any. And, if such is the case, all my commentator's "linguistic note" on this point amounts to nothing. It is worse. It is a mere concatenation of inconsiderate words revealing an entire misapprehension, not to say gross ignorance, of the subject. It is a sophistical attempt to evade the force of the conclusion presented, that if the possession denoted by *had* in the

form *I have had* were a "perfected, past" possession, it could not be brought up into present time by coupling *have* or any other word with *had*. The fact that such a combination as *have had* can be made, and used to denote a possession still continuing, proves that *had* does not, of necessity, denote "perfected, past possession;" which, if it is anything, is a possession neither consistent with nor admissible in present time.

S. W. W.

THE ART OF SPEAKING THE TRUTH.

I.

TO doubt a man's word is esteemed a rudeness, I have sometimes thought, on the same principle that people who live in glass houses are advised not to throw stones. The old Psalmist said in his haste "All men are liars;" I have heard of a modern divine who, after watching the ways of the world for years, scrutinizing his own conduct more or less faithfully, has deliberately come to pretty nearly the same conclusion. We hardly need testimony however to convince us that dishonesty is very prevalent. One who has come to love and reverence the truth is pained every day to see how little regard is shown for it even among its professed disciples. A man with a certificate of church-membership lays his hand upon his heart and looks up to heaven, but the shrewd dealer thinks it necessary to inquire privately into the facts of the case. There are credit-moblier investigations every now and then among respectable communities, the results of which are taken down privately, and nobody seems to mind so long as the victim does not know he is on the stand and nobody throws the lie in his face. Cheats, tricks and artifices are welcomed under other names by men and women who bear a decent reputation in society and reckon themselves among the good of mankind. We are sometimes shocked to find how thoroughly our own dear friends misrepresent us; nay, we are sometimes surprised to find how entirely we, ourselves, have been mis-

taken. "If words mean anything," said one lady to another, "I am sure Madam would be heart-broken if you did not come."

But the fact is, words of themselves often do not mean any thing, but must be taken in connection with the circumstances of time, place, look, gesture, the habits of society and the habits of the individual uttering them, in order to be understood. We really have a very faint conception of our obligation to the literal truth, and I have sometimes wondered if we knew how to be honest in our speech, and if there might not be something done for us respectable, well-meaning, christian people, that we may come to understand a little the right relation between words and things. The old Persians, I have read somewhere, taught their young children *in their schools* to be temperate and to speak the truth. Their *young children*—"Our children—the hope of the world," we put upon our Sunday-school banners. A while ago a man of letters came to us as with a new revelation, to tell us that if we taught the children to begin life well, the millennium would be ushered in when they were grown up. The revelation was not a new one. The wise man of almost thirty centuries back said, "Train up a child in the way he should go and when he is old he will not depart from it." But how shall the child be trained in the right way since the parents are every-body and the world is depraved?

There is another class that has to do with the masses before they have grown old, and hard, and fixed in their ways, an elect class, a professional one, commissioned by legislative wisdom and hedged about with prudential injunctions. May we not with propriety accept a hint from the people of Cyrus and look to our schools to teach, beside the first principles of honesty, the use of words, something of their value, and what they stand for? Certainly, respond our wise men, accuracy is one of the great objects of education. The university has always aimed to produce "patient seekers after truth." We tell our students that "the sum of all good things for them is, chiefly, honesty." I do not think our primary teachers understand it so. They have not been to the university, as all the world knows. It mat-

ters little, it seems to me, that a great man tells a handful of grown-up students that they are to pursue their studies in a way their conscience calls honest, since for all the years of their earlier training they may have been under guides who taught them that to get over books was education—that shrewdness was the best thing, and that honesty and truthfulness were matters to talk to liars and thieves about, and so it may be that their conscience has received such a bias that it is no longer a safe moral guide. Would we send a young man to college to learn Greek and Latin and the higher mathematics when he has not learned the alphabet of his own language, or the simplest table of multiplication, and who has an idea besides that it is of no possible consequence to learn them?—who thinks, if he thinks at all about the matter, that such things come by intuition and as a matter of course? The folly of expecting our children to become “patient seekers after truth,” or even venders of sincere words, by intuition, by religion, by a course of university training when they have reached the stature of manhood, is demonstrated before our faces every day, and our national reputation suffers at the hands of our great men. The unflattering names which foreigners call us, the distrust they manifest toward us, are small things compared with the deliberate judgment the weight of evidence compels us to pronounce upon ourselves. Says the President of Yale College of the “great mass of our ruling minds, and among them a considerable number of college graduates”: “Many of them are men of little reverence for truth and small confidence in principles. They believe in getting on by their wits rather than work, which often signifies by little of wisdom and less of honesty.” I believe the result of our school training would be different—that it would have a greater and a more beneficial effect upon the nation at large, if it were made a special object of our educational system to teach in the earliest schools the principles and the habits of honesty. Indeed, if not at home it must be in the primary public school where the masses can be reached before the character is largely formed, and while it is to some extent mobile, that our children shall obtain a regard for truth that will endure—shall receive a drill in the art of representing

things fairly, by means of words, that shall not fail them when they are grown up.

I am very hopeful about this matter. I believe that people, if they are taken at an early age, may be taught to hear a remark the first time it is made and understand it—to repeat it, if necessary, exactly as it was made; and, with the right connection, also to feel intuitively that it is wrong to repeat it in any other way. I believe that young people may be so drilled and practised that, if brought up suddenly before an investigating committee to testify about themselves, the first impulse would be to give the *correct* answer to the interrogatories, if any answer at all, rather than the honorable or polite one that they would be glad to be able to make. I may be too confident but I cannot help thinking it possible for our children to learn such notions of honesty in the public school, that when they come to be “the people,” the mass of them shall look with distrust upon the business of making money by games of chance, whether in the low saloon or the church parlors, the matrimonial or the commercial market—shall esteem merit a more desirable object of ambition than luck itself.

There is a question about the propriety of teaching religion in the public school; I think there can be none about the propriety of teaching honesty there. And when a child has learned to feel that the real thing is good, while the false semblance of it is ridiculous, that it is better to have things we pay for than things we get by chance, that he is to say that which is true rather than that which is advantageous, that he is indeed to try all things, rejecting those that are false, holding to those that are true, I think we can safely trust his religious interests to his spiritual guide in whatever church he happens to have been born.

One of the principal causes why we well-intentioned people fail of the truth often is inattention;—we fail to take heed how we hear; in our anxiety to talk we give scarcely a thought to what we say. Everybody knows how it is: we listen to a remark carelessly and repeat it carelessly, perhaps with the wrong connections; another careless listener tumbles it on with an addition, and finally we have a three-black-crow story, or a neighborhood game of “scan-

dal" played in real earnest and to the serious annoyance of all good people. The ounce of prevention for this and similar evils should begin to be applied in the first primary school. A little *cure* is needed there, too, we fear. The teacher who has a respect for sincere words, who knows that it is her business to teach their use, will be somewhat appalled when she tries, for instance, to discover the ownership of a disputed piece of property—a pocket knife, a ball, or a string; she summons a dozen witnesses and examines them carefully; she has twelve positive, distinct and different stories, and she begins to wonder if the article has an owner at all, or if it may not belong to every boy in school. It is nonsense to try to make children tell the truth about a matter of which they know nothing. They are singularly like grown people in one respect, they do not distinguish clearly between what they know and what they do not know, yet they are so fond of talking they feel that they must express themselves upon every subject. It is a good thing to teach them in the beginning to talk only when they have something to say. Is there any other reason why any body should talk?

There are many ways that will suggest themselves to the intelligent teacher by which the habit of accurate hearing may be ensured. The simple practice of never repeating a question in recitation time and making a failure to understand it a misdemeanor, of occasionally calling upon a pupil to repeat the answer of his neighbor or the teacher's own remark is productive of much good. In the well-conducted object lesson the pupil learns to pay attention and to make correct, logical answers. In this exercise he is made to look at an object for the express purpose of finding out something about it, and then to give the results of his observation in clear, concise and correct terms. Such an excellent opportunity is afforded here to expose the folly of hasty, ill-considered opinions, to correct vagueness of statement and to repress irrelevant remarks, that it seems almost a pity grown-up people can not have the benefit of such lessons under the eye of a skillful master. On a Sunday afternoon, for instance, if, instead of the regular homily, the preacher might convince his people by well-chosen experi-

ments that they did not know all about a thing when they had heard its name mentioned, and were not perfectly qualified to pass a final opinion upon a matter of which they had seen only one little corner, what a world of good might come of it !

In a public school of some merit an exercise like the following was employed with good results. It was nominally a lesson in rhetoric, and occurred once a week. The teacher brought into the recitation room a little poem or story, something with which the class were not familiar, and read it aloud. When she had finished, the pupils were required to go to the blackboard and write out, as nearly as they could remember, what she had read ; each copy was then reviewed and corrected in presence of the class—the *mis-statements* receiving first notice, and being considered greater faults than mistakes in spelling, punctuation or grammatical construction. This was a most valuable drill in attention, memory and the art of reproducing ; and the skill and accuracy with which these young people wrote out in words of their own, the ideas of the text bore witness to its effectiveness.

THE Agmara Indians, inhabiting the shores of lake Titicaca, and the lofty plateau of the Andes, find the struggle for existence hard, at an altitude of more than 11,000 feet above the sea-level. Their principal articles of food are *quinoa*, a coarse grain resembling rice, and potatoes, of which tuber their country is the original home. The difficulty of boiling food at so great an altitude necessitates the previous maceration of all articles intended to be so cooked. The potato is, therefore, prepared for storing and use by exposing it to the frost ; then it is placed in water, and stamped into a paste ; all the soluble matter is washed out, and the starchy and farinaceous substance alone remains. This is called *chuno*, and it is made into a nutritious though insipid soup. The Agmaras use clay as an article of food, mixing it with *quinoa*. Careful analysis shows that it contains no organic matter, and therefore it must be used merely for the purpose of producing a satisfactory though delusive distention of the stomach.—*Popular Science Monthly*.

THE ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTION OF STUPIDITY IN SCHOOLS.

AN article under the above title recently appeared in the "London Journal of Psychological Medicine." It is aimed at English schools, but applies, however, with equal force to all schools. We present some of the ideas in this article, in some parts condensing and omitting, and in others quoting the exact words of the author.

In the young of the human species there two distinct functions of the brain distinctly concerned in education. One concerns the powers of sensation, ideation, and spontaneous remembrance. This belongs to the lower animals as well as to the human species.

The other concerns the powers of *recollection*, comparison, reflection, and volition, attributes essentially human, or at least possessed by men in common with higher intelligences alone. The powers of sensation, ideation, and spontaneous remembrance, possessed by the lower animals, are sufficient to explain all the particulars of their conduct.

The education of a child may be conducted in the direction and to the extent in which it is possible to educate a horse, a dog, or an elephant, without arousing any faculty distinctly human.

Observation teaches that it is far more easy in some children than in others to carry instruction beyond the sense perceptions, and to call the intellect into activity; but it teaches, also, that the supposed difficulty often arises from an improper selection or application of the means employed, and is simply a failure to open a lock with a wrong key. The apparently dull child not unfrequently receives the necessary stimulus from a trivial circumstance, from a conversation, a book, or a pursuit, and may grow into a gifted man.

Upon testing the educational systems of the present day, even by the most elementary principles of psychology, it becomes apparent that a very large number of children receive precisely the kind of training which has been bestowed upon a learned pig. Teachers who have studied at all

the operations of the mind, realize the existence of a kind of learning which is sensational alone. The power of intelligent attention may be aroused in the child by care, and perfected by perseverance; but the natural inclination is towards a rapid succession of thoughts, variously associated and remembered in their order, without being understood. In schools, under the pressure of the popular demand for knowledge, it is common to accumulate new impressions more rapidly than they can be received, even by children who have had training at home in the right use of their faculties. The work laid down can often only be done by means of that promptitude which belongs to instinctive action. The child who uses his sensorium to master the *sounds* of his task uses an instrument perfected for him by his Creator. The child who uses his intelligence must perfect the instrument for himself; must grope in the dark; must puzzle, must catch at stray gleams of light, before his mind can embrace the whole of any but the simplest question. The former brings out his result, such as it is, immediately; the latter by slow degrees. The former is commonly thought quick and clever, the latter slow and stupid; and the educational treatment of each is based upon this assumption, widely as it often varies from facts. The child whose tendency is to sensational activity should be held back, and be made to master the meaning of everything he is allowed to learn. He is usually encouraged to remember sounds, is rushed forward, is crammed with words to the exclusion of knowledge, and is taught to consider himself a prodigy of youthful talent. The child who tries to understand his lessons should be encouraged, supplied with food for thought, of a kind suited to his capacity, and aided by a helping hand over the chief difficulties of his path. He is usually snubbed as a dunce, punished for his slowness, forced into sensational learning as his only escape from disgrace. The master, in many cases, has little opinion in the matter. Children are expected to know more than they have time to learn; parents and examiners must have show and surface,—things only to be purchased at the expense of solidity and strength. A discreet teacher may often feel sympathy with the difficulties of a pupil; but the half-hour

allotted to the class is passing away, the next subject is treading upon the heels of the present one, the child must complete his task like the rest, and so a budding intellect is sacrificed to the demands of custom.

Among the children of the educated classes the circumstances of domestic life usually afford to the intelligence an amount of stimulus, which, if not of the best possible kind, is at least sufficient to compensate in some degree for the sensational work of school. The easy nursery lessons of the pre-scholastic age, the story-books of childhood, the talk of parents and friends, all furnish food for leisurely reflection, and serve to suggest those strange questions that are one chief evidence of thoughtfulness in the young. Minds thus prepared may often flourish in spite of subsequent excessive teaching; and by forgetting nine-tenths of what has been learned, may find it possible to understand the rest.

In what are called elementary schools, however, we do not commonly find this accidental provision against the paralyzing effects of the prescribed routine. There is in the pupils an absence of intellectual cultivation, together with a sensational acuteness which arises from a habit of shifting for themselves in small matters, which is forced upon them by the absence of the tender and refined affection that loves to anticipate the wants of infancy. They go to school for a brief period, and the teacher strives to cram them with as much knowledge as possible. They learn easily, but they learn only sounds, and seldom know that it is possible to learn anything more. In many cottages there are children, who, as they phrase it, "repeat a piece" at the half-yearly examination. They will learn for this purpose a passage in any foreign language as easily as in English, or learn an English passage backward, if told to do so. In neither case will there be any curiosity about the meaning.

The teacher explains what they repeat, saying this means so and so, and the pupils have sufficient sensational acuteness to remember the sounds he utters, and to reproduce them when called upon. They do not usually understand what "meaning" is. An urchin may be able to say correctly that a word pointed out to him is an adverb or a pronoun, may proceed to give a definition of either, and examples of in-

stances of its occurrence, and may produce an impression that he understands all this; when the truth is, that he has only learned to make certain noises in a particular order, but is unable to say anything intelligible about the matter in language of his own. He may repeat the multiplication table, and work by it, saying that $7 \times 8 = 56$, without knowing what 56 is, or what 7 times 8 means. He knows all about 7 or 8, not from schooling, but from the lessons of life,—from having had 7 nuts or 8 marbles; but of the 56, which is beyond his experience, he knows nothing. The nature of the mental operations of such children is as little known to the teacher as the nature of the mental operations of the inhabitants of Saturn. Adults distinctly understand a thing which they feel to be very easy, and do not know that any children can talk about it correctly without attaching an idea to their words. They often think the teaching satisfactory which enables the pupils to explain things in set phrases. They do not realize the possibility that the explanation may be as little understood as the statement which it explains. Such, however, are too frequently the actual results.

Reference has been made incidentally to the learned pig, and to the parallelism between its training and some kinds of human education. Persons familiar with the tricks taught to animals are aware that these may all be described as muscular actions, performed each consecutively to its proper signal. On hearing the finger-nails of the master click together, the animal does something in obedience to the sensation,—nods its head, or shakes its head, or stands erect, as the case may be. It has no idea that the nod is an affirmation, or the shake a negation, and probably has no thirst for knowledge about the matter, being content to play its part correctly, and to escape the whip. In the case of children the medium of communication is different, and the kind of response is different, but the faculty in action is commonly the same. The words of the pig's master are mere by-play, intended to amuse the audience, and the signal is conveyed by other sounds. The words of the human teacher, or examiner, his questions, for instance, are the signals to the child, each requiring its appropriate answer;

but, like the signals to the pig, they are aural sensations, capable as such of producing muscular action through the medium of the sensorium alone. The responses of the child are in words; that is to say, in sounds that he has been taught, and that he remembers, but of which he need not understand one iota in order to repeat them, any more than the pig need understand the affirmative or negative character of its nod or shake. In the human species, articulated speech is an act analogous to locomotion, requiring the combined and harmonious working of several muscles, and the guidance of sense, but in no way essentially connected with the intelligence; and the child may make the right noises in right order, just as the pig does not *nod* its head when the signal requires it to be shaken.

The effect of purely sensational learning will be to stimulate the nutrition and increase the vigor of the sensorial tract of the brain, at the expense of neighboring and related organs; the tendency to predominance of the sensorium will be increased absolutely by direct excitation, and relatively by neglect of the intellect and volition. The sensations by which the stimulus has been given will not be long remembered, being superseded by fresh ones arising out of events, as the apparatus of the gymnasium would be superseded by the instruments of actual conflict. With the exception of being, perhaps, able to read with labor and to write with difficulty, the pupils must not be expected, six months after leaving school, to possess any traces of their education, beyond an invigorated sensorium and a stunted intelligence.

Now, when it is remembered that present sensations are the source of the least exalted kinds of animal gratification, and that sensations, either present or remembered or conceived, when combined with a feeling of pleasure or pain, constitute the emotions which so powerfully influence human conduct, it must be admitted that the sensorium is the seat of development of those passions and propensities which society, for its own good, is compelled to keep in check, and which every consideration of right teaches individuals to subdue. When, therefore, we reflect upon the operation of predominant emotions in producing, among other evils, chorea, hysteria, epilepsy, and insanity, or when

we consider the aggregate of misery produced, especially among the less cultivated, by the unbridled indulgence of various appetites, we cannot concur in the propriety of a system of education which has a tendency to raise the source of these emotions and appetites to an undue and unnatural prominence. We meet so many examples of habitual non-reflection in young people, who six months ago were among the most glib and fluent pupils of some sensational school, that we fancy we can recognize a kind of stupidity thus induced, and can distinguish it from anything of the kind that is purely natural. We should be disposed, on the whole, to seek the *rationale* of many educational failures rather in a partial and misdirected training of the intelligence, than in its complete suppression. The pupils mix intellectual and sensational acts, not in their proper relations with each other, but in a jumble. Comprehension is brought to bear upon everything that is easy; while a difficulty of any kind is committed to the safe-keeping of the sense perceptions, and the explanation of it is only remembered. Hence arises a habit of resting upon imperfect knowledge, and a habit of loading the memory by the aid of faulty associations; and these habits, in their turn, are the sources of the lively, superficial stupidity which is so common among the better classes. The sufferers from it form that great public to whom are addressed quack systems of medicine, and elaborately-argued advertisements of bitters and pills. For their especial behoof bubble companies are formed, and upon their weaknesses innumerable impostors thrive. Their deficiency is this: that having been permitted from childhood to do many things superficially and with inexactness, they have forfeited the power of arranging their ideas with precision, or of comparing them with caution. They can, therefore, scarcely be said to possess any assured convictions or rooted principles of conduct.

Towards the carrying out of any improvement in education, the first step must be to demand from teachers, either a knowledge of mental philosophy, or, at least, of a scholastic art founded upon the principles which mental philosophy would inculcate. We believe this demand must inevitably be made in the progress of time; it would be greatly pro-

moted if the medical profession would recognize and strive to impress the distinct bearing of physiology upon the development of the mind, as well as upon that of the body.

The practical difficulties, which it is easy to foresee, all resolve themselves into one. An inquiry after intelligent and intelligible teaching has not yet issued from the public. They are content with something else. Whenever this contentment ceases, the means of supply will spring out of the want; and until then, let individual parents remember that they may accomplish much by encouraging in their children a spirit of curiosity and a habit of comprehension. Whether the fire of intellect shall blaze or smoulder, will depend in many cases upon the manner in which it is kindled; and this kindling is among the things that can be done most effectually under the mild influences of home. The constant appeal to memory and the ignoring of the judgment is paralyzing the intellect of thousands of the young. Under the rattle of their swift talk and the apparent smartness of manner, often assumed, there is a stolid, stupid brain, which the school never awakened into life, or touched.—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

A YEAR ago the Superintendent of the Chicago schools told the teachers that he wished them to see what could be done without corporal punishment. The majority assented cheerfully, giving up all punishment except the power to write a note of suspension, and to send an ungovernable child to the Superintendent. During the year 611 pupils were suspended, but of these, 366 were restored and remained ordinarily obedient. The Chicago teachers are greatly elated with their success, but what becomes of the 245 children who are permanently suspended? They should not be turned out to grow up in the streets so long as there is a hope of saving them. Their presence in the school is undoubtedly a detriment, for they not only hinder the progress of the others in their studies, but their example is bad. To meet these cases the Superintendent proposes the establishment of a central ungraded school, which shall be in the nature of a reform school, to which all the hard cases shall be sent.

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

UNITED STATES.—The survey of the middle link of the line of the Northern Pacific Railroad—namely, from Musselshell River to the Missouri—was supported by a U. S. expedition under Col. D. S. Stanley, which left Fort Rice, on the Missouri River in Dakota, June 20. July 9 the command reached the head of Davis Creek, running through the Mauvaises Terres (Bad Lands) into the Little Missouri. These lands were the most striking feature of the entire route. According to a correspondent of the *Tribune*:

“This peculiar character of the country in the North-West is found at intervals in a belt perhaps 600 miles long from north to south, and 200 miles east and west, flanking the valleys of the large rivers and creeks. It is found in the western part of Dakota in extensive tracks running up and down the Little Missouri, the Upper Missouri, the Glendive, and the Yellowstone. It occurs on some of the forks of the Platte. It borders the Black Hills and extends through South-Eastern Montana and Northern Wyoming. These lands are monuments of the wonderful power of water. Any one who has been to California and seen the effect of hydraulic mining in the hills, washing away, cutting deep gulches through their sides, and pouring the loose earth into the valleys, may form some idea of the Bad Lands on a small scale. In the Eastern States there are no topographical phenomena which can form the basis of a correct comparison. The effect of a heavy flood of rain, which has plowed through a region of yielding sand or clay hills, carving and fluting their sides from brow to base, cutting miniature streams and gulches and transporting hundreds of tons of clay and sand into adjacent streams, may suggest something of the physical appearance of an acre of the Bad Lands and the mechanical energy that has wrought it. Multiply this one acre by thousands of acres; instead of one hill have a myriad, stretched over miles of the country, broken and intersected in every direction by numerous troughs, ravines and serpentine stream-beds, the hills bare of vegetation, rounded into cones or sugar-loaves, or cut into grotesque and indescribable shapes, looking in the distance like the broken ruins of an aboriginal city. Imagine this torn, eroded, water-worn, sandy complication of bastions, peaks, hill-cones, 50 to 450 feet high, in the midst of this maze of dry ravine, and you may succeed in forming a notion of the ‘Bad Lands.’”

The writer adds, however, that “one palliating feature of these almost irredeemable lands is the presence of wood and

of water also, such as it is;" and another correspondent, viewing the same scene with a somewhat different vision, is at a loss to know why these lands were ever stigmatized as "bad." July 15 the expedition reached the Yellowstone, and crossed it at Fort Pearson, whence a detour was made west and south to a point below the mouth of Powder River, first reached by boat this spring by Gen. Forsyth, no other navigator having ventured up the Yellowstone since Lewis and Clark at the beginning of the present century. Its average width is 1200 feet, its rate about six miles an hour. The banks are low, receding, clayey, relieved only from their yellow monotony by intervals of green meadow-shelves.

—Mr. Thomas Foster, who writes from the "Historiographer's Desk, Indian Office, Department of the Interior," has undertaken to settle the true pronunciation of *Arkansas*. It is gratifying to be able to state that he upholds *Ar-kan-saw'*, fortifying himself not only by the best usage but by reference to the spelling of the name in the early French chronicles, where of course the pronunciation could not be doubtful. The *Akensas* were a tribe living north of the Natchez, and Father Le Petit, who first mentions them with this spelling, afterwards speaks of "one *Akensa*"—so that the final *s* is a true plural ending. In 1758 another Frenchman uses our present orthography, speaking of the *Arkansas* River, and of "*the Arkansas*" in the same sentence with other plural names of tribes. Mr. Foster urges that a legislative sanction be given to the right pronunciation.

EUROPE.—The British navy will probably long maintain his superiority to every other laborer on the face of the earth, in respect of his efficiency at least in the use of the shovel. Mr. Henry Blackburn, in his latest agreeable souvenir of travel, called the "Harz Mountains," thus illustrates this truth in contrast with German labor:

"There was a curious scene, one afternoon in the summer of 1872, at the entrance to the Frankenberg slate quarry, where Welsh quarrymen were introducing the British spade for the first time to the German workmen. It was a rude shock, especially to the older men, to be compelled to discard the implements they had used for half a lifetime; but the saving of time and labor with the new tools was so

obvious that in a short time they were reconciled, and were to be seen, both men and women, in different parts of the quarry, working with spades held left-handed, with both hands as far as possible from the blade. The old system of quarrying in this district is worth noting, as it will soon be matter of history. When a workman had to excavate in ground, either hard or soft, close or loose, he first went to work with a single-pointed 'pick,' then scraped the loosened earth together with a half-moon-shaped hoe into a wooden platter about 18 inches long; he then threw down the hoe, and with both hands lifted the earth into a little barrow, and sat down to smoke while his daughter wheeled it away. Whenever anything like a spade was used it consisted of a long curved-handled implement, with oval-shaped blade about the size of a dessert plate. This the workman used left-handed, with as much waste of power and as little result as possible. Thus with grievous waste and mismanagement, want of enterprise, and also, it would appear, want of capital, the treasures in slate in this part of Germany are practically undeveloped, whilst the builders of Berlin and other cities of Germany send to Wales for their supplies."

ASIA.—The Cesnola collection of antiquities from Cyprus has revived the interest always felt for this romantic island. Dr. Paul Schröder, of the German legation at Constantinople, as early as the spring of 1870, made archæological and geographical excursions in Cyprus, and has repeated them during March and April of the present year, venturing into parts still more unknown, particularly the mountainous region in the north-west, called Tylliria, where no European had preceded him. He found the isolated inhabitants of this section speaking a language which retained many words from the ancient Greek, unintelligible to the modern Grecians, and exhibiting an astonishing primitiveness in their mode of life. Holes in the earth or rock serve for houses; the bare earth for a couch; tables and beds are unknown; the covering of both sexes is a coarse canvas, stiff with dirt; and barley bread is almost their sole diet. Neither wine nor coffee have they. Six rainless winters have converted the greater portion of the interior of the island into a desert, and an irresistible emigration is going on towards Syria and Asia Minor; so that an island which, three centuries ago, under Venetian rule blossomed like the rose, is now in imminent danger of becoming depopulated.

—Dr. Schliemann's excavations on the site of ancient

Troy have continued without intermission since February 1, when they were renewed with a force of 150 men, with the very considerable addition of his wife—an Athenian woman, equally enthusiastic in the pursuit of the vestiges of Priam and his subjects, and the conquering Greeks. In July, a very remarkable "find" was made, which Frau Schliemann dexterously concealed from the view of the laborers by covering them with the folds of her shawl. It consisted of shields, kettles, salvers, vases, flasks, goblets, lance-heads, etc., appropriately manufactured of bronze, gold, or silver, and all curious for their art. Dr. Schliemann makes no doubt that he has hit upon a treasure from the palace of Priam, which he locates near by; and as the articles enumerated were overlaid by molten metal, ashes, etc., he feels sure that the chest containing them was dropped in the flight from the burning city. He finds Homeric mention for almost every article secured, and walks as confidently through the underground labyrinth as if Poseidon himself or Aphrodite were his guide. Archæologists look with interest on his labors and the relics which he unearths, but seem to reserve their opinion as to his topographical and historical conjectures.

—The great event of the times in political geography has been the capture of Khiva, and the consequent unopposed extension of the Russian empire to (practically) the whole Chinese frontier. The military preparations of the Russians were ample for the end proposed, and the Khan yielded to overpowering necessity. Human slavery in a broad region is now among the things of the past. In the meantime Yakoob Beg has died during an embassy to the Russian capital.

AFRICA.—Sir Samuel Baker, on his way back to England, after having extended the Egyptian frontier to the equator, and left eleven steamers on the White Nile to watch the slavers, addressed a letter to Sir Henry Rawlinson from Khartum, July 2. In the course of it he says:

"The news of Livingstone's safety received here is most cheering, but I am astonished at his account of an examination of the north end of Tanganyika, that there does not appear to be any connection

with the Albert Nyanza. Since I wrote to Sir Roderick, the King of Uganda M'tese, to whom I had intrusted the search for Livingstone, sent messengers to me at Fatiko saying that his men had been to Ujiji, and declared that Livingstone had left that place long ago for the west side of Tanganyika, since which nothing was known of him. They also reported that three white men had been to Ujiji, but had returned. I sent one of my men with M'tese's envoys to remain with him as my agent. This man (Selim) was one of Speke's "faithfuls," who, having got drunk in Alexandria, was seized by the police and made a soldier; thus his destiny brought him into my service. I wrote a letter to Livingstone, which will certainly reach him if he comes north; and the King of Uganda will receive him kindly and forward him to the Government station. I established a station opposite Riouga's Island on the Victoria Nile, N. lat. 2.06. My next station is Fatiko—N. lat. 3.01—at which places he will feel himself at home should he reach them.

"The envoys sent by M'tese all assured me that the Tanganyika is the M'woatan N'zize (Albert Nyanza), and that Ujiji is on the eastern border; that you can travel by boat from Ujiji to the north end of the Albert Lake, but you must have a guide, as some portions are very narrow and intricate. From my experience of the high-water grass, I should expect islands and floating vegetation in the narrow passes described. I am by no means fond of geographical theories, but the natives' descriptions were so clear that I accepted as a fact that the Tanganyika and Albert Lakes are one sheet of water, with marshy narrow straits overgrown with water-grass, through which you require a guide."

If this opinion prove true, it will be not the least among the marvels of Central African discovery. It is singular, however, that a connection which is known at "the north end of Albert Lake" should not be notorious at Ujiji, and that Stanley and Livingstone should be left to hunt for the outlet or strait without assistance. The story that three white men had visited Ujiji and returned, answers to Stanley and his two white lieutenants, except that the latter never reached the lake.

—The Libyan desert lying next to Egypt has never been explored in its interior. Herr Rohlfs, having obtained of the Viceroy substantial support (£4,000), will lead thither an expedition, embracing an astronomer, a geologist, and a botanist, in December next. The desert will be entered from the Egyptian side.

—MM. Marche and Compiègne arrived at Gaboon on

the 15th of February, with intent in the course of some months to ascend the little known river Ogowai, which, with the Congo and the Shari, flows through the largest portion of Africa which has remained unexplored. They are men of scientific attainments, and accustomed to hot climates.

Bibliography.—M. Vivien St. Martin, the accomplished editor of *L'Année Géographique*, will publish in the course of the present year a Universal Dictionary of Modern Geography, with an accompanying atlas and history of geography.

—Dr. W. Koner's annual review of geographical publications of every description occupies nearly 100 pages of No. 42 of the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society. It is universal in its scope, between the dates December, 1871–November, 1872.

—Messrs. Sampson Low and Marston are about to publish a volume on the subject of Arctic Exploration, by Mr. Clements Markham, editor of *Ocean Highways*, entitled the "Threshold of the Unknown Region." It is intended to give a full account of all that is known of the line which, at present, separates the known from the unknown; to explain the best route by which the unexplored region may be examined; and to enumerate the important scientific results to be derived from Arctic exploration.—*Nature*, June 12.

—It may be recollected, says *Nature* (June 5), that M. Alphonse Pinart, the French philologist, visited the Aleutian Islands and Alaska in the summer of 1871, for the purpose of collecting the vocabularies and the photographs of the different tribes. This material he carried back with him to Paris, where he has been engaged in working it up. We learn that he expects to revisit the United States this month, with ample funds in his hands from the French government, in order to effect an exhaustive collection of the antiquities of Alaska, his excursions to different islands being made in a vessel especially fitted up for his use. Alaska is one of the finest fields in the world for ethnological and prehistoric research.

—Dr. Petermann, in *Mittheilungen* of May 8, has some wholesome words for American skeptics on the subject of the Stanley-Livingstone meeting. The number of intelligent persons in this country who believe Stanley's story to be pure fiction is much greater than would be imagined by those who have paid attention to the evidence. Dr. Petermann says that there are no longer any doubters in Germany, and that long ago experts had to admit that Stanley did really make the journey to Lake Tanganyika and there meet Livingstone. He adds, what is very true, that Stanley's diary has the dullness of an honest recital (*machen eher einen langweilig ermüdenden Eindruck als einen schwindelhaften*), and the prompt composition of the book must have required scarcely less energy than the journey itself.

Cartography.—A good-sized map of Santo Domingo accompanies the August Circular Letter pamphlet of the Secretary of the Samaná Bay Company (New York.) The "Domain" of this Company is duly indicated by a red boundary, and in one corner of the map a plan of the future metropolis of the bay is given. Dr. Nachtigal's sketch-map of his explorations in north-eastern Soudan is represented in No. 44 of the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society (New York: L. W. Schmidt). The same number also contains, on two sheets, no less than fourteen comparative maps of Africa, from the second century of our era to the present day. The first eight are: Ptolemy's (Alexandria, about 130 A. D.); Marin Sanudo's (Venice, 1321); Picigani's (Venice, 1367); Andrea Bianco's (Venice, 1436); Fra Mauro's (Venice, 1457); Martin von Behaim's (Nürnberg, 1492); Diego Ribera's (Seville, 1529); O. Dapper's (Amsterdam, 1676.) The last three maps—the last two especially—approximate the Africa known to us at this date. With D'Anville's (1749) begins, says Herr Kiepert, the scientific cartography of the continent; and beside it he places five maps showing, on the same scale, the progress of discovery in inner Africa at as many different periods, marking in red the courses of German explorers. These maps well deserve a place in every school library. We may note that the last in order (1860–1873) shows three blank spaces yet to be explored: (1) the Libyan desert, which Herr Rohlf's will essay this winter; (2) a small district lying north of the Guinea coast; and (3) the middle Congo region, which Livingstone, the Germans, two or three British expeditions, and one French are attempting to penetrate. Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for May 26 has maps of the Northern Moluccas, and of the German Empire and adjacent countries (with special reference to railroad and steamboat lines). The same periodical for June 25 shows the course of the steamer *Albert* in Spitzbergen waters, in 1872, and on one sheet the province of Kuang Tung, China, and Canton and its vicinity.

—Mr. James Wyld, of London, is a map-maker of whose productions purchasers and students would do well to beware. Last year he put forth a large map of South America whose history is exposed by Herr Kiepert in No. 42 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal*. We cannot repeat the details; enough to say that the map was originally the work of a French refugee, Louis Stanislas d'Arcy de la Rochette, and appears to have been drawn in 1790 but first issued in 1820, at the time of the revolt of the Spanish-American colonies, by William Faden, predecessor of Mr. Wyld. A fourth (unrevised) edition appeared in 1823. With a few slight changes, very bunglingly made, the same plate is made to do duty again in 1872 by Mr. Wyld, in utter disregard of the enormous geographical acquisitions of the past 80 years; is called a new and corrected edition; and is sold for \$20! Herr Kiepert has carefully compared the editions of 1823 and 1872, and knows whereof he speaks. Nor is this Mr. Wyld's only of-

fence. Eager to turn the public interest to his profit, he has (apropos of the Khiva expedition and Stanley's journey to Livingstone) issued the most antiquated maps of Central Asia and Central Africa, which show on their face that the sources from which they were derived must be from twenty to fifty years old!

Photography.—It makes no difference how we enter Quebec with the Messrs. Anthony for *ciceroni*. The sentry at the citadel has no terrors for the tourist who takes 591 Broadway for his base of departure. But there is no reason for being singular. Most Americans approach Quebec from the St. Lawrence side; let us do the same. The first road to the Upper city from the Lower is Mountain Hill Street. We have it, steep and curving, in No. 8246. The view is from just below the Prescott Gate, or rather the site of the gate, for the arch has been taken down here as at every other entrance (save one) to the once fortified city, though, as we shall see, some of these views were taken before the last act of demolition had been consummated. In the view before us we have to note the interrupted rampart on the right, the roof of the new post-office at the head of the street, and an old house with a characteristic gable, clapboarded from the eaves to the very tops of the chimneys and across the space separating them. No. 8229 shows in front view the south side of the same street, from a point directly above the line of Prescott Gate. Here we have our first introduction to the tinned roofs which form so marked and peculiar a feature of Quebec (city and province). Above and beyond is Durham Terrace, the grand resort for sight-seers, on which we shall presently take our stand; and, still further off, the Citadel, with its precipitous angle of descent to the St. Lawrence, whose waters are here just visible. Looking down from the Terrace, on our left hand, we get such a view as No. 8225—the Custom-house, with tinned dome, occupying the central foreground, and the great river stretching away to the north-east; its right bank and the shore of Orleans Island being both in sight. Curious roofs, on which we see the universal fire-ladder (at first supposed by the stranger to have something to do with smoky chimneys or with Santa Claus); the long jetty called the Commissioners' wharf; and much shipping, make this a very interesting view. More of the roofs of the Lower town, another stretch of river, and Point Levi (the railroad terminus of Quebec) are present in No. 8228. Best of all views of the Lower town, with a good view of the river and of the Point Levi shore we get in No. 8227. Immediately below us (our standpoint is Laval University) are the gun-mounted ramparts; at a pier we see a Montreal or Saguenay boat; and in the stream one of the Allan line of ocean steamers. We must leave the Terrace to get our best view of the St. Charles River and that portion of the suburbs of Quebec. From another jumble of roofs the eye crosses the river to the indescribably charming champaign beyond—towards Lorette and Beauport and Montmorenci, and the encircling hills far away (No. 8226). Through

this fertile tract one rides along an endless street to the Falls of Montmorenci. In No. 8237 we have perhaps the best possible view of the falls, inasmuch as the mud-bank below here passes for rock, and the beholder does not realize, as on the spot, the bare and shadeless surroundings, and the prosaic end of so magnificent a descent. The house of the Duke of Kent, and the towers of the ruined suspension-bridge above the falls, are plainly to be seen. A few months ago we could have re-entered the city by the Palace Gate. It exists no longer except in memorials like No. 8247. Another gate which is now but a name is Hope Gate (from without, No. 8249; from within, No. 8248). The former gives an excellent idea of the fortifications. Among public buildings the two centuries-old French Cathedral claims attention (No. 8239, exterior, showing the tinned spire; Nos. 8240, 8241 the interior.) It is a staid edifice, but the interior decoration has the merit of not being repugnant to the taste of a Protestant. Outside we notice the indigenous two-wheeled vehicle called the *calashe*, of which we get a special view in No. 8250. It is picturesque but rough to ride in, and perhaps a little vulgar; but it is well adapted to the steep streets. We may take in St. Louis Castle (No. 8234) on our way to the gray Wolfe and Montcalm obelisk in the pleasant garden overlooking the river (No. 8244). A nearer memorial of Montcalm is his headquarters (No. 8235) just opposite the St. Louis Hotel on St. Louis Avenue. It is in all respects (whether as a relic or as a modern barber's shop) less interesting than the residence of Montcalm pointed out on the Montmorenci road. A little further up the avenue we come to the one-story house in which Gen. Montgomery's body was laid out after his death on the last day of 1775 (No. 8236); and walking on for no great distance we pass under the (once) St. Louis gate, and emerge upon the Plains of Abraham, and presently stand at the base of the column erected on the spot where Wolfe fell (No. 8245). The surroundings are very shabby, and a new penitentiary is unpleasantly near. Some day Quebec should honor itself by laying out here a public park. Climbing down the perilous height which Montgomery tried in vain to scale, we pass along one of the most dirty, old, and thoroughly interesting streets (Champlain) in the whole town. From one of the wharves we take a farewell glimpse of the frowning Citadel (No. 8233), stared at by three little girls perched peacefully before us on upturned crates.

These photographs give you substantially all that the actual visitor to Quebec sees who devotes his day or day and a half to sight-seeing. But it will be well not to imagine that they are anything more than an imperfect substitute for a real visit, or that thirty-six hours are sufficient even for that. There are little details of street lines, sky lines, odd construction, strange contrivances—a gable, a lamp-bracket, a casement—which invite open-mouthed gazing on the spot, and would repay quiet contemplation in the stereoscope if only they were so pictured for us.

THE ANDERSON SCHOOL OF NATURAL HISTORY.

THE island of Penikese embraces about 100 acres; ten of these constituting a northern peninsula, reserved by the donor as a future building spot. The rest forms an irregular circle; the northern shore-rises gradually, the southern one is precipitous; and near the southern border is "Flagstaff Hill," about 100 feet above the sea. This island, like the neighboring Cuttyhunk, Nashawena, and Naushon, which, with smaller ones, constitute the Elizabeth group, is drift plentifully sprinkled with boulders representing nearly all kinds of rocks, amongst these a splendid specimen of conglomerate or "pudding-stone."

The buildings given by Mr. Anderson stand near the water, upon the southwest shore of the little bay between "Great" and "Little Penikese." The house faces the south, and has been occupied by the instructors with their families; a projecting ell accommodates the servants. The proposed buildings were two, each 100 feet by 25, running parallel, east and west, and connected by a lecture-room 25 by 40 feet; all these are now completed; but upon the 5th of July, when Professor Agassiz reached the island, the utmost efforts of the architect and builders had only succeeded in roofing in the more southerly of the two buildings. Yet on Tuesday, the 8th, at least fifty persons would arrive for permanent occupation, and others to witness the opening exercises. How the carpenters worked all Sunday, upon the ground that the Anderson School was no money speculation, but an institution for teaching God's truth; how Mrs. Agassiz and other ladies not only directed the willing laborers of the employees, but themselves unpacked crockery and furniture and made the beds, so that by Tuesday noon the south building was floored, and the furniture arranged at the east end for the ladies and the west end for the gentlemen, need not be described in detail; nor how the steward and his assistants provided then and thereafter the equally essential materials for the subsistence of the 70 to 80 persons who occupied an island fifteen miles from New Bedford. Suffice it to say that this was accomplished

at a cost of \$8 40 per week for each student, with an additional charge of \$10 for the use of furniture during the summer. These figures are given to show at what expense living and instruction were furnished the first year, when all was new and necessarily more costly than it is likely to be hereafter. Within a fortnight, the eighteen women students had each a room upon the second floor of the south hall; the remaining rooms were occupied by as many men, and by such of the instructors as could not be accommodated in the house; the remaining male students occupied the western third of the lower floor, the other two-thirds forming the general laboratory and lecture-room. It will be understood that next year each of the fifty students will have a sleeping-room on the second and a working-room on the first floor.

Communication with New Bedford was had almost daily either by sloops chartered by the institution, by the *Sprite*, of which hereafter, or the steamer which visited Cuttyhunk twice a week. The burden of business was assumed by a friend of Professor Agassiz's, and an account was kept with each student in respect to board and the alcohol and other supplies required for their private collections. Fifty aquariums, each 30 inches long by 20 inches wide and deep, had been ordered as early in the spring as plans could be made. The frames and glass arrived during the first week; but, in spite of the exertions of all concerned, they were not fully completed before the close of the school, and so one great feature of seaside instruction was wanting. Yet not entirely either; for bowls, pails, and jars were in constant use as small aquariums, and so much was learned and enjoyed even from these simple contrivances, and so fully was the time occupied, that more than once it was said that the aquariums would this first year have been almost an *embarras de richesses*.

The materials for aquarium study and for dissection were obtained in part by the students themselves, wading over the flats or in excursions to and among the neighboring islands, and in part by the almost daily dredging from the *Sprite*. This is a beautiful yacht of about forty tons, presented to Prof. Agassiz by Mr. Galloupe, and under the charge of

Count Pourtalès, of the Coast Survey, whose deep-sea investigations during the past ten years have not only changed our views of life at great depth, but suggested similar researches upon the other side of the Atlantic. The dredging party consisted of eight ladies and gentlemen, and always brought in valuable material, although the limits within which it was thought best to confine the excursions precluded the results obtainable in deeper waters. A neighboring "pound" afforded a constant supply of the sharks and skates which were needed both for instruction and for the prosecution of researches which Prof. Agassiz has been for many years carrying on respecting selachians. Very valuable acquisitions were also made through the fishermen of New Bedford and vicinity. From these various sources came, among radiates, plenty of star-fishes and holothurians (or sea-cucumbers), also sea-anemones and corals enough to give all an opportunity to study them. Sea-urchins (*echini*) were not found, but a supply arrived from Prof. Baird, at Peak's Island, near Portland, Maine. Of mollusks, the island shores afforded the *litorinas* in plenty, and larger univalves as well as bivalves were found by wading, or brought up by the dredge. Of the cuttle-fish, only a few squids were found. Articulates were obtained in great abundance; the gigantic and tufted marine worms were a revelation to those from the interior, whose knowledge of this class was confined to earth-worms. Sand-fleas and little shrimp-like crustaceans abounded upon the flats and among the sea-weed, while the large crabs and lobsters were occasionally procured in quantity for general examination. An almost treeless island would not be expected to furnish many insects, yet representatives of all the sub-orders were found; garden-spiders and house-flies abounded, the latter multiplying to a troublesome degree toward the end of the summer.

Naturally, the marine vertebrates occupied most attention. Fishes of several kinds were sometimes had in large number, so as to be examined by all; or the rarer species were prepared as permanent specimens, either by the students or by those who collected for the Museum at Cambridge, of which the Anderson School is practically a summer branch. And here it should be stated that so far from

laying claim to what was obtained, Prof. Agassiz urged the students to make collections to take home, and provided for the purpose cans and alcohol at cost. The only exception was in the case of a skate brought in by a dredging party, which proved to contain in each oviduct an egg in its case or shell, apparently just formed and ready to be laid; and the finder gladly placed at the Professor's disposal a specimen of which he could make the best use. Among other prizes were the sharks with eggs bearing young in different stages of growth (for many sharks bring forth living young), and a skate five feet across, with a tail of still greater length, and so heavy as to require two men to carry it into the laboratory; a "file-fish" (*monacanthus*), several "globe-fishes" (*diodon* and *tetrodon*), two specimens of *tetrapterurus* allied to the sword-fish, an *elacate*, and three species of *echineis*. A few pipe-fishes were found, but no lampreys or sturgeons; but some specimens of *amphioxus* and lampreys, gar-pike, and other ganoids, had been brought by Prof. Wilder to illustrate the lectures.

The batrachians were plentifully represented by hosts of toads, which are said to have been introduced only five years ago, but now cover the island, making holes two to five inches deep, apparently for protection against the salt spray, and eating little crustaceans (*gammarus*) as well as insects. No reptiles were found upon the island, but a number of turtle have been introduced as a supply in future years. Several kinds of birds were obtained, but the most abundant were three species of tern, whose eggs and young were in some localities not easy to avoid treading upon. None of these were killed for sport, and the means for embryological study will therefore continue. The sheep constituted the sole mammalian inhabitants, until the arrival of the rabbits and guinea-pigs sent by Dr. Brown-Séguard. Notwithstanding the unpromising aspect of the island from a botanical point of view, one of the students made a list of about seventy-five plants; the sea-weeds were objects of great interest, and beautiful specimens were prepared. Fossils were obtained at Martha's Vineyard; but Penikese afforded no geological material beyond the drift and boulders already mentioned.

The means of study at Penikese consisted of dissecting instruments supplied at cost, and of trays, jars, dishes, etc., which all were free to use. Several students had microscopes, and the institution supplied nearly a dozen of different kinds, which were constantly in use. A stereopticon furnished several instructive exhibitions. The instructors brought works upon their special subjects, and the students soon learned that Professor Agassiz's denunciation of books referred mainly to compilations and text-books; while even in respect to them, it could be fairly interpreted as was the Scriptural declaration against rich men; and all soon learned that only those who trusted too much in books were likely to be excluded from the ranks of true naturalists. The key-note was given when Professor Agassiz, in his opening address, stated that he was less anxious to impart actual information than to lead the students to observe for themselves, and to become as far as possible original investigators; and that, if they could learn the best *methods of study*, the results would be sure.

It was evident that the applications for admission would far exceed the number (fifty) which could be received; and Professor Agassiz established a rule which is to be even more rigidly adhered to hereafter, namely, to admit only those actually engaged in teaching natural history. The admission of women could hardly form a question with one who, though not a believer in coeducation in general, has always received them both as students and assistants in the Museum; and the earnestness, industry, and skill with which they avail themselves of all the privileges at their disposal, proved the justice of their admission. The students, most of whom were themselves teachers, even superintendents of schools, all worked with great zeal both in taking notes and in dissection; indeed, all needed cautioning more than urging. Not content with their regular work, they organized an Agassiz Natural History Club, whose weekly meetings proved of great interest.

It will be remembered that the first announcement of the school included the names of about twenty scientists who had made specialties of the various branches in which instruction was to be given; and it is one of the pleasantest

features of the whole affair, that although, almost without exception, hard-worked in their regular duties, these gentlemen volunteered their services. From various causes, enforced absence, other duties, and in several cases the need of absolute rest, many of these free-will promises could not be fulfilled; but their offers themselves remain on record as evidence of their wish to assist in an effort to advance natural-history education, and of their faith in the leader of the enterprise. Instruction was actually given by the following: 1. Louis Agassiz, Harvard University. 2. Arnold Guyot, Princeton College. 3. Count Pourtalès, Coast Survey. 4. A. S. Packard, Peabody Academy, Salem, Mass. 5. B. G. Wilder, Cornell University. 6. T. I. F. Brewer, Boston. 7. Waterhouse Hawkins, England. 8. Edward Bicknell, Cambridge. 9. Paulus Roetter, Cambridge. Professor N. S. Shaler, to whom the school is so largely indebted for its existence, and Dr. Brown-Séquard were detained in Europe till too late to join their colleagues.

Mr. Roetter gave several practical outdoor lessons in drawing from nature, and Mr. Hawkins delivered three lectures upon the principles of art and the method of natural-history drawing. He also illustrated two of Dr. Wilder's anatomical lectures upon the board; but most of his and Mr. Roetter's time was spent in transferring to paper the aspects in life and action of the new and interesting animals constantly brought in. Mr. Bicknell gave constant instruction in microscopic manipulation, and prepared specimens for the microscope or by injection for various investigations; he also on several occasions employed the stereopticon for illustration of microscopic structure and even of living animals while moving and devouring each other. Dr. Brewer delivered three lectures upon birds, the first of which was a most instructive demonstration of their usefulness as insect devourers, and a vigorous protest against their destruction. All hoped that his radical views would be published and heeded. Count Pourtalès superintended the dredging, and gave instruction in the use of the various instruments required for observation upon land and sea. It must not be forgotten that a timely storm delayed Professor Peirce, the eminent chief of the Coast Survey, sufficiently

long upon the island to enable the school to hear his views upon the nebular theory. Prof. Guyot, the former fellow-student and always warmly-attached friend of Prof. Agassiz, was able to remain only a week, but he lectured nearly every day, and succeeded in imparting an amount of information upon physical geography and meteorology which, as is well known, could not have been obtained from any other source.

Dr. Packard and Dr. Wilder took charge of the instruction upon articulates and vertebrates respectively, and were at all times in the laboratory superintending the students' dissections, pursuing their own investigations, or preparing for their lectures, which generally came upon alternate days. Dr. Packard began with the lower forms of life, and then followed a regular course with the worms and crustacea, illustrating them with diagrams, or, when possible, with actual specimens. A most interesting and instructive account was given of the structure and embryology of the horseshoe crab (*limulus*), mainly from his own researches. The closing lectures were on the general structure and metamorphoses of insects, but there was not time for a detailed account of the sub-orders; the students were advised to form "biological collections" to illustrate the life-history, the foes and friends and food of single species, as a most interesting study and an aid to agriculture. After some preliminary lectures upon methods of study, upon the habits of spiders, and upon general anatomy and physiology, including a demonstration of the viscera and muscles of a large dog, Dr. Wilder began with *amphioxus*, and treated successively the several groups, the last lectures being upon the brains of mammalia, and especially of dogs; all were illustrated by diagrams and by specimens.

Prof. Agassiz himself worked, as he always does, hard and almost uninterruptedly; in fact, too hard for his health. He was almost constantly in the laboratory, encouraging and aiding alike the students and the other teachers, or spending hours in elucidating new points in the structure of animals which he has studied all his life; and he lectured nearly every day, at times even twice in a day, for he attended every lecture by others, and at its close, or even in

its course, would rise to add a word of confirmation or doubt, and, as upon several occasions, would continue for half an hour upon matters suggested by the lecture. On one occasion, some general remarks before a lecture led to a spirited discussion upon some important subjects, to the exclusion of the lecture itself, but to the greater satisfaction of all concerned. In fact, nothing could be less formal and more genial than the intercourse between the respected chief and all connected with the school. From what has been said, it will be seen that an enumeration of Agassiz's subjects would not be easy. A series of admirable lectures on glaciers, embodying much that has never been published, and a course upon radiates, and a third upon the egg, formed nuclei around which were grouped discourses upon general topics and special questions, such as were never before brought within the same time. And when it is remembered that the school opened July 8, and the last student departed August 28, and that during these seven weeks Prof. Agassiz was absent less than one (and that upon urgent business), it will be evident that when he asked the co-operation of others he did not mean to content himself with directing their labors; but it is to be hoped that another year he may be willing to give himself more of the rest he so sadly needs.—*Nation*.

CREAM OF THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLIES.

A WRITER in the *Connecticut School Journal* discourses upon School Government, and the failure of some teachers to preserve order. Those who do succeed possess "a power of authority which is irresistible—a natural gift"—or they have tact, or an unconscious, but strong, influence over others. To those not endowed with these qualities, and they are the large majority, the cultivation of the will is commended, and unvarying courtesy towards pupils. These suggestions are good but are not sufficient. The teacher must decide questions of discipline calmly, and then insist upon obedience. If a wrong decision is made, however, he should promptly reverse it. Another import-

ant point is to keep cool. The moment self-control is lost, control over pupils is gone. More is gained by courtesy in school than is generally supposed. If you treat a boy like a gentleman, you give him a strong incentive to become a gentleman. Therefore we would insist strongly upon this point. Among the other articles in this magazine we note "Teachers' Wages, Professional Training, Adverb or Adjective? and Literary Culture for Children." This number of the *Journal* is unusually good, the book-notices being omitted for want of space.

The August and September numbers of the *Minnesota Teacher* contain a paper on Normal Schools and Model Schools. The writer distinguishes two systems employed in normal schools, "the academic," aiming to give the greatest possible amount of culture, and "the professional," aiming to make professional teachers. As is justly said the grand requisite for the teacher is knowledge, but without the ability of imparting it the greatest amount of learning is useless so far as teaching is concerned. These two must both be found in the successful teacher. Applicants for admission to normal schools have generally little education, and the time allowed them to study is so short, that they think they must devote it all to the acquisition of knowledge. It is however necessary for them to learn "how to teach," and if the theory of teaching does not suffice we see no escape from the practice to be acquired in the model school. The idea of the model school is undoubtedly correct. If in the present state of culture among normal school pupils it is advisable to employ it, is another question. The other articles contained in the *Teacher* are selected.

Rhode Island Schoolmaster.—Contents: Horace Mann and George Peabody, The Bible in School, My first School, Cooperation of Parents, Educational Intelligence, etc. "The Bible in School" gives the views of a writer who formerly was strongly in favor of reading the Scriptures in school, but who has modified his opinions somewhat. He argues that since many patrons of the school object to it on the ground that it teaches sectarianism, we have no right to do it. He would however teach morality, for, without that as a foundation, education has not its full elevating power, it would

not restrain from crime. For this the Bible is not absolutely necessary. A moral life in the teacher will have the strongest influence upon the pupils. Neither Romanists nor Atheists, though they might object, the one to our Bible, and the other to any Bible, would oppose the teaching of decency, chastity, benevolence, or any other of the practical christian virtues. This would be all well enough could we always get teachers whose christian lives were an example worthy of imitation. The teaching of morality is essential, and we must see to it that all our schools enjoy it. To trust alone to the influence of teachers would not be wise.

President E. S. Joynes's address at the opening of the Educational Association of Virginia, and a paper on The Use of Text-books, are the leading articles in the *Educational Journal of Virginia*. The address is excellent. The other article discusses the uses and abuses of text-books. Two methods of using the book are noted; 1st, teaching orally and referring to the book for confirmation; and 2d, having the lesson learned from the book and adding whatever is necessary after the recitation. The latter system has the advantage of thoroughness, and it disciplines the mind. This is more beneficial than the mere acquisition of facts. Several abuses of text-books are mentioned, of which the most important is relying implicitly upon the statements of books. Pupils should be led to sift every question, and, if their conclusions do not agree with those of the book, to think the matter out, and, with the help of the teacher, decide which is right. The writer in his search for abuses has discovered one of which we never dreamed. It consists in "putting a text-book into the hands of pupils who cannot read them, and requiring lessons to be committed to memory from them. Cases have been known where children who had not yet learned the alphabet were required to study their lessons in the text-book!!!" Two of the last exclamation points are ours,—one could not do justice to an abuse of such magnitude. It is as sensible as requiring a man to lift himself over the fence by his boot-straps.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A FUNNY CRITIC.

MR. EDITOR:—W. Hand Browne has freed his mind. In the MONTHLY for September, he has levelled at us three full pages of large words, (some of them enormous, jaw-breaking concerns!) on account of our brief notice of his friend Holmes's little book. The blow was tremendous and stunning. But we find we were not very seriously hurt; we still eat, with excellent appetite, our three meals a day.

The points Mr. Browne endeavors to make against us seem to be nine in number—just the right number for a cat-o'-nine-tails!

He charges us, in the first place, very mysteriously with having put forth "a distemper." He says: "His criticism is evidently not an art, but a distemper." A very suggestive use of words! We are very happy, however, to be informed that a criticism is a distemper. And this distemper is supposed "to be very severe." If such is the case, we confess our previous ignorance of the fact.

Mr. Browne tries to be funny over the idea that, in works on geometry and surveying, cuts and diagrams are mere illustrations. This simply shows his ignorance of facts. He probably has never heard of geometry without diagrams. When he is wiser and perhaps has some better idea of what an abstract science is, he will be less disposed to be funny over "illustrated geometries."

He says that "the absurdity that acidulates" our "blood, is that a grammar should have pictures in it." He was never more mistaken. Neither has our blood been acidulated over his friend's grammar, nor have we the least objection to pictures in a grammar if properly employed. But when Mr. Holmes or any one else undertakes to *illustrate grammatical facts* or principles by means of pictures, he undertakes an impossibility, an absurdity.

He ridicules our objection to the picture designed to illustrate the sentence, "Ships sail on the sea." He exclaims, "A barque, a schooner, a sloop, and a row-boat! Bless his nautical knowledge; though as to the opposite winds, he

seems to have forgotten that vessels can sail on opposite tacks with the same wind. But it would seem that the reviewer never heard of *ships* as a generic term." No, not as a term including row-boats. Nor Mr. Browne, either! If he has any authority for such a use of the term, will he be kind enough to produce it? Our "nautical knowledge," we presume, is not equal to Mr. Browne's. Yet it is no news to us that the same wind may propel vessels in opposite directions. We have, however, to learn that vessels can sail in opposite directions *on the same tack* with the same wind. If friend Browne will but turn to page 13 of the little book in question, he will perceive that the sloop on the right and the schooner on the left of the picture are *both on the larboard tack*, yet going in opposite directions! Their masts, instead of leaning one way, viz., to the left, lean toward each other. If they are not represented as propelled by opposite winds, we confess we know nothing about pictures. Nor is this all. The barque, in the middle of the picture, is represented as sailing *before the wind*, and yet her signals are *floating astern*, as though the wind were ahead! Does Mr. Browne see the point now? And are such misrepresentations fit to go into a book for children, even supposing that a correct representation illustrated the subject in hand?

He thinks we don't understand the design of the cut of the steam-tug towing a ship with a row-boat attached. Well, if we, in our simplicity and with all our acquaintance with words, cannot understand the object of such illustrations, we wonder more than ever how the little ones for whose enlightenment they are intended are to understand their use. If the cut is meant to be merely "a pictorial presentation of the sentence beneath it," as Mr. Browne says is the case, and if it is of any service, why not have more of these "pictorial presentations" of sentences? Why not more of this improved style of hieroglyphics to explain to children the meaning of plain English sentences? It seems to us that Mr. Holmes might in a second edition improve his little book in this way wonderfully. If he would only do this, the little fellows would doubtless cry for his grammar! They would not think of using any other than this sugar-coated intellectual pill! And when set to digest-

ing it, how tickled they would be, and how they would grow in their knowledge of hieroglyphics!

Mr. Browne, moreover, unhesitatingly charges us with disingenuousness, because we referred to the "Practical Suggestions" at the close of the book as misplaced, and asks, "Why does he conceal the fact, which he must have noticed, that on [*sic*] the very first sentence of the first page of the text, the attention of teachers is expressly directed to these Practical Suggestions?" That sentence, the existence of which we were not aware of till informed of it by Mr. Browne, we find is printed in fine type, and was inadvertently and altogether overlooked by us. Had we seen it we certainly should have modified our remark concerning those "Suggestions." We meant no injustice to Mr. Holmes, and trust that he and his companion will accept our apology.

The next lash, however, is less deserved. It politely charges us with falsehood. It is in these words: "When he says, 'the directions to the learner as to the use he is expected to make of the "Exercises" . . . are often placed after the exercises,' he asserts what is simply not the fact. The directions . . . are *uniformly* placed before the exercise." To show that our reviewer is in error in saying that "the directions are *uniformly* placed before the exercises," the reader will turn, for example, to page 27. There, after the exercise, we will find this direction, ["No attention should be paid as yet to any words but the nouns and verbs. The other kinds of words are to be noticed as an acquaintance is gained with each kind."] Not a word of this before the exercise. Again, on page 31, after the exercise to which it refers, ["If the teacher think proper, the indication of the Numeral and the Definitive Adjectives may be omitted."] It would take no more type or space to insert directions like these where they belong, viz., before the exercises. Then Mr. Browne could truthfully speak of uniformity in regard to their position.

He says that in our notice of the grammar, we make "no attempt to show that it is not, altogether, a very suitable book for its purpose." We did not expect to please everybody. Mr. Browne must think his friend's little book a very important work if he expects us to go into particulars and

give the evidence in full on which our judgment was based. Had we the space, however, and was the book worthy of it, we could give abundant proof of its unsuitableness.

The last charge is that we don't understand our business. This is the most cutting stroke of all! Look at it. "There is not a particle of evidence that the reviewer himself is at all qualified to judge of its suitability." This is putting it "pretty strong," Mr. Browne—"not a particle of evidence"—"the reviewer himself"—"at all qualified." Surely, this must have been penned during "the heated term." If written in cooler moments, even the writer of it, who of course understands the art of criticism—at least, he can give lessons on it—might not show quite so many signs of ebullition.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

GOOD morals result from natural disposition and education, gentle manners from association. Neither are much helped by a text-book alone, for, even in morality, the education necessary is rather that of example. If we study morals from a book and live among thieves we probably will steal. Still books on morality do good as guides, and those on manners are quite popular. How shall I get into good society? is the question with which Mr. Gow opens his book.¹ By good society he means the society of the good. But his definition of good people as "those who are educated to know, and trained to practice, the rules of good morals and gentle manners," is decidedly faulty. A large number of good people, and perhaps the majority of them, have no idea of gentle manners, except as that term is taken to indicate the natural action of a good heart. We should call such manners good, but Mr. Gow's idea of a gentleman is rather that of the dictionary, one raised by manners or education above the ordinary level. In this understanding, the term

¹ GOOD MORALS AND GENTLER MANNERS. For Schools and Families. Alex. M. Gow, A.M.—Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati and New York,

"good society" is not synonymous with the society of the good. To get into the society of the good, one need have no manners to speak of, for there are good people of all grades. After all these "guides to good society" do no good. Mr. Gow truthfully says, that "people are like birds; they go in flocks, each kind by itself. Those of similar feelings, tastes, and habits, associate together." So if a person should, by patient study, learn how to act in a grade of society above that to which he was accustomed, he would still be uncomfortable and out of place, unless his tastes were identical with those of the persons of that grade. People of like habits come together naturally. The idea of the last part of the book is to teach how to behave in society, but unless one is accustomed to a certain "set" he would feel uncomfortable there, and all the rules of behavior ever formulated would not help him. "Eyes and ears should be in constant requisition, noticing quietly the language and manners of those who are well versed in the rules of good society." What a life to lead, to be on a constant lookout that you may not make a blunder! As we said before, manners are learned naturally by association, and are not helped by book rules. We are sorry to see these minute rules on behavior, for they detract from the dignity of an otherwise excellent book.—The moral part of the work is well done. The duties of man to man, and of man to God, are quite fully mentioned and explained, and in all these discussions strict justice is, as it should be, the foundation. On the question of amusement, such a hard one to decide, Mr. Gow does not go into detail, but lays down general principles, leaving it to the conscience of each to decide what is right. As to the amount of amusement he says: "When amusement ceases to be a recreation, and becomes a business, it should be abandoned." This is sound doctrine. We should not forget that our amusements are intended to re-create us, so that we may take up our work with renewed zest. In this view many things which are innocent in themselves, as for example excessive dancing, become wrong, because they cease to renew our powers. Temperance in all things is the lesson to be impressed upon young people. Other questions of practical import are touched upon and are well handled.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

IDAHO TERRITORY.—The report of the Territorial Superintendent does not contain returns from all the counties, but probably those which are omitted have as yet no established schools. In 1871 the number of schools was 28, which was increased to 33 in the following year, while the number of pupils rose from 906 in '71, to 1440 in '72. This is a good proportion of attendance, for the population between the ages of 5 and 21 years is only 1923. The County Superintendents complain quite generally of one of the school laws which allows all districts to draw an equal amount of money from the school fund. Thus a district which contains only ten children obtains as much pecuniary assistance as one which contains a hundred. The expense of supporting the schools for the two years which this report includes, was about \$36,022.49.

MINNESOTA.—MINNEAPOLIS.—This city has received from Mr. Charles Macalister, of Philadelphia, a gift of property worth \$100,000 or more for educational purposes. The only thing necessary to secure this gift is the placing in the hands of trustees by the citizens the sum of \$30,000, the interest of which will be used in the payment of professors for the college to be established. Of this sum several thousand dollars have already been promised.

TENNESSEE.—One of the chief difficulties to be encountered, and already seriously felt in this State, is that of supplying the colored schools with suitable teachers. White teachers prefer white schools, and so great is the present and prospective demand for them that in many of the counties great difficulty will be experienced in supplying the white schools with competent teachers. Consequently there will be much need of teachers from among the colored people for their own schools; and, unfortunately, but few of them are now to be found in this State who are sufficiently qualified for the work.

TEXAS.—The principal educational needs of the State are, efficient normal training, and better school buildings.

It is difficult to provide educational facilities for all in a population so widely scattered, but it is encouraging to note the large increase in the number of schools and pupils. During the year 1871-72, 1924 new schools were organized, and the attendance increased 84,007. The language of the report is somewhat ambiguous, but it appears that the 127,627 children reported as receiving instruction, does not include the 4,500 attending private schools. The school population aggregates nearly 250,000. Little is said of the compulsory features of the school-law, and no statistics are given to show its efficiency where it has been enforced. The teachers are well paid, and the scholars are generally well taught. \$1,188,818 were expended for educational purposes during the year.

MISCELLANEA.

PROF. CHARLES G. ROCKWOOD, Jr., Ph. D., has been elected Professor of Mathematics in Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J., the position formerly held by Dr David Murray, now Commissioner of Education for Japan. Prof. Rockwood is a graduate of Yale, and has for some time occupied the Mathematical Chair in Bowdoin College. Though a young man, he is well known as a writer on scientific subjects, his articles being extensively copied and commended, both in this country and in Europe. He is to enter upon the duties of his new office in January, 1874.

A VIRGINIA school board has appointed a New Hampshire man Principal of its schools. The *Educational Journal of Virginia* warns him that if he teaches a sectional spelling book, or a political multiplication table, that it will order him out of the State.

A FRENCH gentleman, learning English to some purpose, replied thus to the salutations: "How do you do, monsieur?" "Do vat?" "How do you find yourself?" "I never loses myself." "How do you feel?" "Smooth, you just feel me." "Good morning, monsieur!" "Good! No, it's a bad one; it's vet and nasty."

WILLING to sacrifice himself for the public good. *Boy*—"Teacher, there's a gal over there a-winkin' at me!" *Teacher*—"Well, then, don't look at her!" *Boy*—"But if I don't look at her, she'll wink at somebody else!"

THE *Minnesota Teacher* has a department named "Common Ground," which is made up entirely of selected articles. The editor claims that this "unique feature" has no rival in any educational journal of the country. If he should take the trouble to look through a few of those journals, he would find that they consist almost entirely of "common ground." Occasional copying is well enough, but if every one makes up a whole journal in that way, there will be nothing to copy in a short time. Soon we shall have notices of this kind: "Mr. So-and-so has accepted the position of editor of the — *Teacher*. A more fit person to assume the editorial scissors and paste-pot could not well be found."

THE *Educational Journal of Virginia* says it is sorry to have met Dr. McCosh at the National Educational Association of Elmira, and to have seen his impatience of opposition, and want of generosity in acknowledging and retracting a mistake.

A FEW days ago the *N. Y. Times* contained among its "board" advertisements, the notice of a room with "pantry, hot and cold water, and sun, adjoining, to let to two young gentlemen without meals." If any gentlemen without meals would like to live near the sun, let them apply at once.

SOME one has been at the pains of tabulating the various honorary degrees conferred at the late college commencements. According to this, the degree of LL.D. was bestowed upon sixty-three persons; D. D. upon ninety-two; A. M. upon fifty-eight; Ph. D. upon four, and D. M. (Doctor of Music) upon one.

THE *California Teacher* says our Geographical Notes are invaluable in the school room. We always regarded the *Teacher* as a journal of taste.

A MAN on the 4th Ave. in this city advertises "Every requisite for funerals." If he supplies a corpse and mourners we do not know.